1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF14 Central China AF14

permanent occupation of Kwangtung and Kwangsi by the Han Chinese occur.[6] 162 166

The Han Chinese in the provinces of Honan, Hupeh, Hunan, and Kiangsi speak Mandarin and are more homogeneous than the Han Chinese in Kwangtung and Kwangsi. There have been three major migrations of Han Chinese into Kwangtung and Kwangsi, each resulting in their settling in a different geographical locality and their speaking a different dialect: 166 197

1. From Kiangsi came the first group of Han Chinese who crossed Ta-yü-ling(Mountain) and reached the fertile Yüeh River delta by the Pei River. From this delta they spread along the Tung, Pei, and Hsi rivers. This group now speaks the Cantonese dialect.

2. From Fukien came the second group of Han Chinese by the sea route. They occupy the coastal plains ranging from the Han River delta to Hainan Island. This group now speaks the Ch'ao-chou and Hainan dialects.

3. The third group of Han Chinese immigrants are the Hakka, who migrated from Honan to Kiangsi before they came to occupy the interior mountain and river valleys in eastern

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6. Ibid., p. 236.

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Kwangtung, at the end of the Ming dynasty (A. D. 1368-1644) and the beginning of the Ch'ing dynasty (A. D. 1644-1912). The Hakka dialect, different from the Cantonese and Fukienese dialects, more closely approximates the dialects in Central China.[7] On the other hand, because there are verbal similarities between Thai and Hakka,[8] the Hakka people are often confused with non-Han tribes, especially since they have some physical characteristics which resemble those of their neighboring tribal peoples in Kwangtung and Kwangsi.[9]

The Han Chinese in Kwangtung and Kwangsi moved from east to west in their attempts to find places in which to settle. Consequently today there are more Han Chinese in Kwangtung than in Kwangsi.

On Hainan Island, Cantonese-and Fukienese-speaking Han Chinese are found along the coastal plain, with large concentrations of Fukienese-

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7. Ch'u Chao-t'ang, Hsin Chung-kuo Ti-li, [The Geography of New China], Shanghai, Ta Chung-kuo t'u-shu chü, 1953, pp. 192-93.

8. Wilhelm Credner, Cultural and Geographical Observations Made in the Tali (Yunnan) Region with Special Regard to the Nan-Chao Problem, Bangkok, the Siam Society, 1935, p. 16.

9. Harold J. Wiens, China's March toward the Tropics, Hamden, Conn., The Shoe String Press, 1954, p. 272.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF14 Central China AF14

speaking Han Chinese in the northeast, while the Hakka-speaking Han Chinese are found in the northwestern corner intermingled with Thai immigrants from Indo-China.[10]

Comparing the Han Chinese in Kwangtung and Kwangsi with the northern Chinese, the former are generally shorter in stature, showing the effect of a series of admixtures of non-Han blood in the course of Han migration. It can be stated, therefore, that the Han Chinese are more homogeneous in civilization than in racial composition. (For cultural characteristics of the Han Chinese, see chapters on Social Structure and Family in this handbook.)

III. THE NON-HAN ETHNIC GROUPS

The attached ethnographic map indicates the distribution of non-Han ethnic groups, and a table contains some detailed information concerning the six most numerous non-Han ethnic groups.

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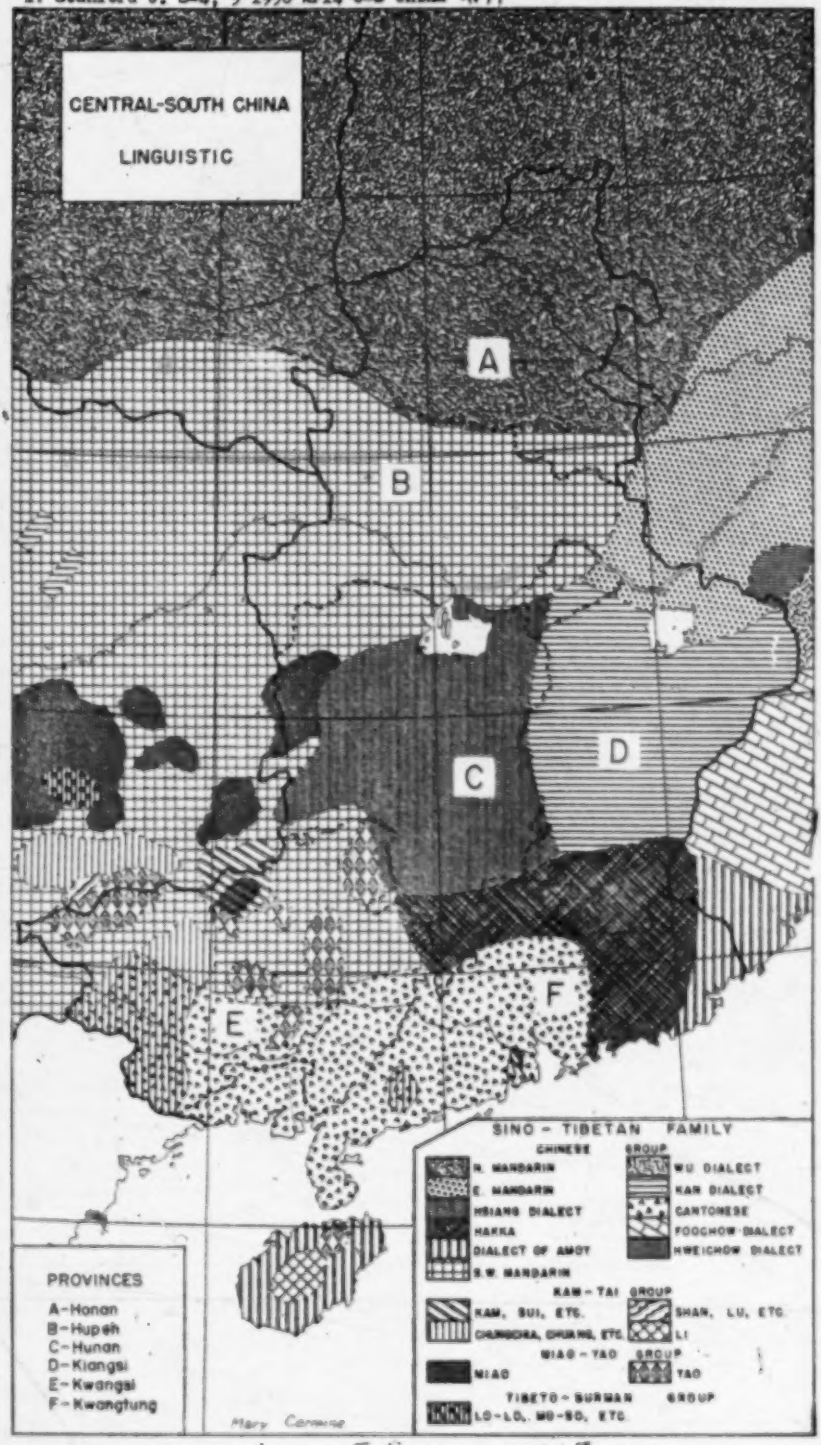
10. Ch'en Chih, Hai-nan-tao Hsin-chih, [A New Gazeteer of Hainan Island], Shanghai, 1949, p. 89; Li Tai-ch'en, Hai-nan-tao Chih Hsien-chuang, [The Present Situation on Hainan Island], Shanghai, Shih-chieh shu-chü, 1947, p. 18.

1: Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF14 Central China AF14



[facing p. 85]

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LANGUAGES

I. MAJOR LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS

In this region both Chinese and non-Chinese languages are spoken. Major dialect groups of the Chinese language spoken are: Northern Mandarin, Southwestern Mandarin, Kan-Hakka, Cantonese, and Min. In the provinces of Hunan, Kwangtung, and Kwangsi and Hainan, side by side with Chinese dialects, specimens of such non-Chinese languages as Li, Chuang, Tho, Miao, and Yao are spoken. 197●

II. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION AND NUMERICAL STRENGTH OF SPEAKERS

A. Northern Mandarin

Northern Mandarin, the largest Chinese dialect group and spreading all over the northern part of China, is spoken throughout the province of Honan, where local dialects do not form a sub-unit of this major dialect group. There are approximately 44,000,000 speakers of this group of dialects in the region.

B. Southwestern Mandarin

Southwestern Mandarin, China's second biggest dialect group, with approximately 56,000,000 speakers, is spoken in a large part of this region, as follows:

1. Hupeh, except some of its southeastern and southern districts;
2. Northern Kiangsi, along the Yangtze River;

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3. Hunan, except a few districts on the eastern border adjacent to Kiangsi;
4. Northern Kwangsi.

The dialects spoken along the three rivers, Hsiang, Tzu, and Yuan in Hunan and in a few districts in southern Hupeh near the Tungting Lake may be grouped under the name of Hsiang.

C. Kan-Hakka

The Kan dialect group with 10,000,000 speakers in the region, is spoken in Kiangsi along the Kan River and in some districts in southeastern Hupeh and eastern Hunan. The Hakka dialect group covers the area of southern Kiangsi, northern Kwangtung, and a small part of Western Fukien, and has approximately 11,000,000 speakers. Offshoots of the Hakka dialect are spoken in Formosa and elsewhere and scattered as speech islands in a few districts in Hunan and Szechwan. Since the Kan and Hakka dialect groups have some important features in common, they are treated as a single group.

D. Cantonese

The Cantonese dialect group, with approximately 40,000,000 speakers, is spoken in southern and western Kwangtung and throughout Kwangsi with the exception of its northern part. There are some Cantonese speakers also in Hainan. Most of the overseas Chinese speak dialects of this group.

E. Southern Min

In addition to southern Fukien which is outside

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this region, Southern Min is also spoken in south of Amoy, parts of eastern Kwangtung, and in Hainan. There are approximately 8,000,000 speakers in the region. 197

F. Non-Chinese Languages

As regards the non-Chinese languages in this region, Li is spoken in the mountainous areas in Hainan; the T'ai dialects are spoken in southern and western Kwangsi, under various tribal names; Miao is spoken in the mountainous areas in western Hunan; Yao is spoken in some mountainous districts in Kwangtung and Kwangsi. There are still some unknown languages, such as that of Ke Lao, spoken here and there in Hunan and Kwangsi. Altogether speakers of these non-Chinese languages in the region number approximately 7,500,000. 198

III. DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF THE DIALECTS

A. Northern Mandarin

Dialects of the Northern Mandarin have in common the following distinguishing features: 197 194

1. There are two kinds of affricative consonants which are not voiced and voiceless as b, d, g, dz and p, t, ts in English, but voiceless and unaspirated, commonly expressed in phonetic symbols of the Wade-Giles system of Romanization as p, t, k, ts and p', t', k', ts' respectively. Roughly speaking, p, t, k sound like English p, t, k in speak, still, and skill; and p', t', and k' sound like English

p, t, k in peak, till, and kill. Voiced consonants such as b, d, g of English do not exist in Northern Mandarin. 197 194

2. There is a set of retroflex affricatives and fricatives distinguishable from dental affricatives and fricatives. For example:

Chu (pig) : tsu (to rent)
Ch'eng (city wall) : ts'eng (storey, layer)
Shan (hill) : san (three)

3. The gutteral nasal ng does not occur in the initial position of a word as it usually does in many other dialect groups.

4. A vowel scheme such as the following exists:

	Front		Central	Back	
	Unrounded	Rounded		Unrounded	Rounded
High	i	ü			u
Mid	e		ə	ê	o
Low			a		

With an additional symbol for the apical vowel, the above scheme will suffice to indicate all the vowel sounds of these dialects. Ordinarily, e and ə, or ê and o, are not distinguishable.

5. Only two final nasals, n and ng are found, except in Shansi, and they are distinguishable regardless of the vowel preceding them.

Lan (indigo) : lang (wolf)
Chen (true) : cheng (to steam)
Min (people) : ming (name)
Sun (grandchild) : sung (loose)
Ch'ün (a crowd) : ch'iung (poor, impoverished)

6. There are four tones. The pitch of the first tone is high-level; that of the second, high-rising; that of the third, low-dipping and that of the fourth, high-falling. Graphically, these four tones may be represented as follows: ˥, ˧, ˨˩, and ˥˩, respectively. However, the dialects spoken in Shansi and areas adjacent to it have an additional fifth tone, which is always associated with a glottal stop in a final position. The dialects spoken in northwestern Honan adjacent to Shansi are rather like those spoken in Shansi. That is to say, they have a fifth tone, originating from the ancient "entering" tone and associating with a final glottal stop. Another characteristic of these dialects is that n and ng rarely occur after the vowels a and e.

B. Southwestern Mandarin

Southwestern Mandarin does not differ very much from Northern Mandarin, and it has the following distinguishing characteristics:

1. Such syllables as fu and hu, and sometimes fei and hu(e)i or fung and hung are not distinguished. The resultant merged forms are either fu, fei, or hu, hu(e)i, hung.

2. The initials n and l are not distinguished except in some Yunnan dialects. However, there is a tendency to treat these two sounds as conditioned variants or partially conditioned variants of a sound unit. That is to say that l is heard before mid and low vowels while n is heard before high vowels, or that while either n or l may occur as free variants before mid and low vowels, n occurs reguarly before high vowels.

3. Retroflex initials are not as commonly used as in Northern Mandarin. 197 194

4. The glutteral nasal ng usually precedes the Northern Mandarin zero-initial when the latter is not a high vowel. Thus, words pronounced like ai (to love), e (forehead), and en (favor) of Northern Mandarin, become ngai, nge, and ngen, respectively.

5. The common Northern Mandarin unrounded back vowel ə̂, found in such words as kə̂, written as ke in the Wade-Giles system of Romanization, (elder brother), hə̂ or he (river), is replaced by a rounded o generally. The same back vowel in other Northern Mandarin words such as te (to obtain, se (color), che (this), k'e (guest), etc., is replaced by a front vowel e (which sounds like a in chaotic) in many Southern Mandarin dialects.

6. There is only one final nasal after the vowels ə̂, i̊, ů, ü̊, and it is generally n.

7. While in a few special areas there are five or even six tones, most of the dialects of this group have four tones. The ancient "entering" tone is mixed with the "even" tone of words with voiced initials.

As to the Hsiang dialects, those spoken in western Hupeh, western Hunan, and northern Kwangsi closely resemble Southwestern Mandarin. However, those spoken in central Hupeh, especially around Wuchang, Hankow, and Hanyang, present two special features. One is the diphthongization of the simple vowel u after dental initials. For example, tu (stomach) becomes tou, and nu (angry) becomes nou:

The other is the substitution of palatal initials for retroflexes, and the front vowel ü for the back vowel u in certain words. For example, ts'u (to go out) becomes ts'ü, tsu (pig) becomes tsü and su (book) becomes sü. The dialects spoken in eastern Hupeh and northern Kiangsu differ from those spoken in Wuchang, Hankow, and Hanyang in their tonal system which more or less preserves the ancient "entering" tone without any association with the final glottal stop. In some dialects spoken in eastern Hupeh, we find the ancient "falling" tone developed into two tones, depending on the voiced or voiceless quality of the initial. Consequently these dialects have five and even six tones.

A major characteristic of the Hsiang dialects that distinguishes them as a whole from Southwestern Mandarin is their preservation of the ancient voiced stops and affricatives either completely or incompletely in the initial system. This is of special historical significance since these consonants have been preserved in no other dialect within the entire Mandarin group.

C. Kan-Hakka

The Kan and Hakka dialects are grouped together for discussion for two reasons. One is that in both the ancient voiced stops and affricatives have changed to aspirated voiceless sounds in all cases. The other is that in many places in Kiangsi, the Hakka speaking and non-Hakka speaking peoples have mingled so well that it is difficult to say whether the dialects they speak are pure Hakka, pure Kan, or just a mixture of both. However, when the two dialects are not mixed, they are distinguishable.

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1. Kan

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Kan differs from Hakka mainly in the tonal system and final consonants. The number of tones varies from six to seven, but the ancient "entering" tone remains undifferentiated. In some extremely simple dialects within the group, the final p, t, k, once associated with the "entering" tone, have totally disappeared. As to the nasal finals, m is scarcely heard, while n and ng are seldom differentiated before i, e, u, etc.

Like Southwestern Mandarin, most Kan dialects do not differentiate between initial n and l, but unlike Mandarin, Kan dialects substitutes t and t' for retroflex initials. For instance, Mandarin chih (to know) becomes ti, and ch'uan (a stream) becomes t'uan, etc. Another unique characteristic of Kan is its simplification of common diphthongs such as ai and ao. Thus, Mandarin tai (to substitute) becomes ta, and kao (to tell) becomes kɔ (ɔ sounds like a in all). Finally, it may be added that the loss of final n after the vowel a and the nasalization of the vowel often occur in Kan.

2. Hakka

Hakka has the following special features:
a) It replaces the Mandarin zero-initial with a voiced labio-dental fricative when it is followed by the vowel u. For instance, Mandarin u (black), uei (to surround), uan (ten thousand), and uen (to interrogate), written as wu, wei, wan, and wen respectively in the Wade-Giles romanized spelling, become vu, vi, van, and ven. Moreover, words of this category which originally had an initial m in ancient times,

have retained the ancient initial. Thus, the word for "ten thousand" is also pronounced man, and that for "to interrogate" may also be pronounced men. 197 194

b) Before mid and low vowels, ng and the zero-initial are contrasted: thus, ngon (bank, coast): on (table); ngao (proud) : ao (difficult).

c) While its h is the same as that of Mandarin, it becomes an f when it precedes the vowel u. Thus, Mandarin hung (red) becomes fung, and hua (flower) becomes fa.

d) It has no ü sound. For instance, Mandarin ch'ü (to go), yüan (round), and yün (cloud) become k'i, ien, and iun respectively.

e) Final m, p, t, and k are retained: Mandarin chin (gold) tsa (mixed), sha (to kill), and shih (stone) becomes kim, ts'ap, sat, and siak respectively.

f) There are six to seven tones, two of which are derived from the ancient "entering" tone and associated with final p, t, and k.

D. Cantonese

Since the dialects within the Cantonese group often differ quite noticeably, an attempt is made here to deal mainly with standard Cantonese, which is the dialect of the metropolis of Canton. The remarkable features of the "Si Yap" dialects, however, will also be touched upon.

As the development of ancient voiced stops and affricatives is an important criterion for the grouping of dialects, it must be pointed out here that in this respect Cantonese is very much like Mandarin. That is to say, they both have unvoiced such voiced stops

which have become aspirated or unaspirated as conditioned by the tone. 197 194

The special features of the initial system of Cantonese are:

1. F replaces the h and in certain cases of Mandarin when they are followed by u. Thus, Mandarin hu (tiger) and k'u (bitter) both become fu, huo (fire) becomes fo, and k'uai (fast) becomes fai.
2. In some other cases Mandarin k' is replaced by h: Mandarin k'e (can, may) becomes ho in Cantonese.
3. There is no retroflex initial.
4. Its preservation of the ancient final consonants m, n, ng, p, t, and k seems to be more perfect than that of Hakka and Southern Min. By "perfect" is meant that not only the exact number of six, but also the distribution of words in each of the categories.
5. The number of tones in Cantonese dialects varies from six to nine. The nine tones of standard Cantonese are: high-falling (ancient "even" voiceless initials), low-falling (ancient "even," voiced initials), high-rising (ancient "rising," voiceless initials), low-rising (ancient "rising," voiced initials), mid-high level (ancient "falling," voiceless initials), mid-low level (ancient "falling," voiced initials) high-level short (ancient "entering," voiceless initials and relatively high vowels), mid-level short (ancient "entering" voiceless initials and relatively low vowels), and low-level short (ancient "entering," voiced initials). Of these, the first one had a sandhi form, that is, it changes to high-level when preceding another word in connected speech.

E. Southern Min

The Swatow and Hainan dialects in this region

belong to the Southern Min group, which includes also the eminent Amoy dialect. As a whole, the Southern Min group of dialects is closely related to the Northern Min group, which is typified by the dialect of Foochow. All Min dialects have the following features in common:

1. There is no labial fricative sound. For example, Mandarin f is replaced by h, p, or p'. Hence, Mandarin fa (law) becomes Foochow huak, Amoy huat, and Swatow huap; Mandarin fan (cooked rice, meal) becomes Foochow puong, Amoy and Swatow pong; and Mandarin fang (fragrant) becomes p'ang in Foochow, Amoy and Swatow alike.
2. Words with dental or retroflex affricative initials in other dialects are replaced by dental stop initials. Thus, Mandarin ch'ih (pond), ch'ou (to extract), and chung (middle) become tie, t'iu, and ting respectively in Foochow, ti, t'iu, and tiong in Amoy, and ti, t'iu, and tong in Swatow.
3. Ancient voiced stops and affricatives have lost their voiced quality just as what has happened to those of the Mandarin dialects. But, unlike Mandarin, they have all become unaspirated instead of being both aspirated and unaspirated as conditioned by tones. Thus, Mandarin p'o (old woman), po (to bind), t'i (topic, title), tan (but), ts'ao (trough), and chin (to exhaust) become po, puok, te, tang, tso, and tseing in Foowchow, po, pak, te, tan, tso, and tsin in Amoy, and po, pak, ti, tang, tso, and tsen in Swatow.
4. There are generally seven or eight tones, and a very elaborate system of tone sandhi, especially in Northern Min.

Southern Min further characterizes itself by the following features:

1. There is a tendency to oralize the nasal initials

when they are not immediately followed by nasalized vowels or the nasal ng. Thus, b, l, g and m, n, ng are distributed complementarily in general. 197 194

2. Nasalized vowels and diphthongs are popular in daily speech, though usually not recorded in dictionaries dealing only with the literary pronunciations.

3. Tone sandhi is very common, but its system is not as elaborate as that of the dialects of Foochow. Each tone has only one sandhi form, no matter what tone the following word may have.

F. Non-Chinese Languages

1) Miao

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The Miao language is now generally grouped together with the Yao language as a separate branch of of the vast Sino-Tibetan family of languages, which includes Chinese, T'ai, Annamese, and the Tibeto-Burman languages. Miao and Yao as languages are known under various tribal names in Southwestern China and Indochina.

Miao dialects have five tones: high-level, high-rising, low-rising, high-falling, and low-falling. Since most Miao people speak the local dialects of Southwestern Mandarin as well as their own language, many Chinese words have found their way into the Miao dialects. Naturally, such loan words have undergone modifications in pronunciation. For instance, final n is usually replaced by ng, because n does not occur in the final position in the Miao language as a rule.

2. Yao

The Yao language, unlike Miao, has no pronasal-

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The following comparison is interesting:

	Sub-group A		Sub-group B	
	Lung-chou	Lung-an	Wu-ming	Lai-pin
Aunt	pa	pa	pa	pa
Palm	p'a	p'a	va	va
Cloud	p'a	p'e	fe	hu
Fish	pja	pla	pla	pja
Hill	p'ja	p'la	pla	pja
River	ta	ta	ta	ta
Eye	t'a	t'a	ta	ta
Chicken	kai	kai	kai	kai
Kill	k'a	k'a	ka	ka
Rice	k'ao	hao	hao	hao
Egg	k'jai	hlai	klai	kjai

T'ai speakers in Kwangsi number less than half a million. Loan words from the Chinese language (Southwestern Mandarin as well as Cantonese) form a huge portion of their vocabulary, and almost all of the T'ai speakers can speak and read Chinese.

IV. DEGREE OF AUDITORY INTELLIGIBILITY

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Although it is rather difficult to point out the exact degree of mutual auditory intelligibility of the languages and dialects spoken in this region, the previous section dealing with their distinguishing features should have made it reasonably clear that the non-Chinese languages, although not entirely free from Chinese influences, bear little resemblance to the various Chinese dialects. Hence they are not intelligible to the Chinese-speaking people of the region. Furthermore, they are sufficiently different from one another to be mutually unintelligible.

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As to the Chinese dialect groups, despite differences in pronunciation, intonation, and syntax, Northern Mandarin and Southwestern Mandarin are mutually intelligible for practical purposes. But speakers of these two dialect groups will have a great deal of difficulty in trying to understand or to get themselves understood by the speakers of Kan-Hakka, Cantonese, and Southern Min dialects. As it has been noted in the previous section, the degree of mutual intelligibility on the part of Kan and Hakka is quite noticeable, but speakers of Cantonese and Southern Min will understand very little of them. Similarly Kan and Hakka speakers can hardly communicate orally with speakers of Cantonese and Southern Min. The degree of mutual intelligibility between Cantonese and Southern Min is such that the speakers of the two dialect groups can hardly converse.

V. THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE OR KUO-YÜ

Since there is no standard spoken Chinese, and since the various Chinese dialects in general are sufficiently different to make them mutually unintelligible to various degrees, many difficulties naturally arise. The Chinese themselves have long felt the need for a national language that will help them solve such difficulties. Consequently, as early as 1911, a movement was launched to unify the national language, and a system of thirty-nine phonetic symbols which were later reduced to thirty-seven was devised primarily for the purpose of indicating speech sounds. In the following year the pronunciation of Northern Mandarin as typified by the dialect of Peiping was adopted as the standard for the new national language. With the strong support of the government and educational leaders, the movement soon gained momentum and swept the entire country. Gradually more and

more speakers of other dialects began to make an effort to learn the new national language or kuo-yü. 197

During the years of China's war of resistance against Japan when people speaking various dialects were squeezed into the hinterland, dialectal barriers were gradually broken down. A situation like that proved to be favorable to the further popularization of the national language. Although it may be exaggeration to say that now the national language has replaced local dialects in the Central-South Region, it is nevertheless true that kuo-yü is gaining wider acceptance than ever before.

VI. THE CHINESE WRITTEN LANGUAGE

Despite the fact that the Chinese people in this region speak different Chinese dialects and even non-Chinese languages, the fact still remains that they use one and the same system of writing. None of the non-Chinese languages spoken in the Central-South Region has a written language of its own. As Chinese is the second language of these non-Chinese speaking peoples, they write in Chinese as well. 212

China's written language consists of thousands of uniformly understood logographs or "characters" as they are commonly called. They can be understood only with reference to their ancient forms.

A. Pictographs

Chinese characters are traditionally classified into six main categories, the first of which is pictographs. The characters in this category all originated from simple pictures: jih, now written 日, is

2:Shryock H-4, 5 (no date)1931 AF14 Central China AF14

THE TEMPLES OF ANKING

361 The city of Anking is the capital of the interior province of Anhui, in central China. It is situated among low hills on the north bank of the Yangtze River, which there runs due east for a short distance, 370 miles from Shanghai, in lat. 36 9'N. and long. 116 5'E. The *Encyclopedia Sinica* gives its population as 40.000, which is probably as good a guess as can be made at present. Unfortunately the census of the Chinese Post Office gives only the figures for the Hsien, which is a district many times larger than the city. The city wall is about three miles in circumference, but there are suburbs outside the East, West and North Gates. There are lakes to the north and northwest, and about ten miles to the north is the Great Dragon Mountain (Ta Lung Shan) which is about 3000 feet high. The country is a fairly fertile agricultural district.
361 The language of the people is a dialect of mandarin, differing slightly from
191 that of Hupeh, but fifty miles north or south of the river the pronunciation has changed so that an Anking man may not be able to make himself understood by the uneducated coolies in Taihu, for instance. With a gentleman he would have little difficulty.

441 The city is not remarkable for any special products and is not of great
633 importance commercially. Good inks are sold there, but they are made in
361 other places. A tributary from the north enters the Yangtze outside the West Gate and there seems to be a considerable amount of trade carried on it in junks. Anking is not a treaty port, although it was intended to make it so at one time, but local opinion was able to prevent it. The river steamers

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